DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 229 988 EC 152 553

AUTHOR French, Fred; Kysela, Gerard
TITLE Special Educational Administrative Policies in Alberta and Newfoundland During 1982: Implications for Policy Development and Service Delivery.
SPONS AGENCY Alberta Univ., Edmonton. Faculty of Education.
PUB DATE Apr 83
NOTE 80p.; Paper presented at the Annual International Convention of The Council for Exceptional Children (61st, Detroit, MI, April 4-8, 1983).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Disabilities; *Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; *Policy Formation; Rural Education; *School Districts
IDENTIFIERS *Alberta; *Newfoundland

ABSTRACT

Special education policy and services in Newfoundland and Alberta were examined and compared. The two provinces were chosen because of legislative policy differences in the provision of special education, large proportions of nonurban citizens, and a recent tenfold increase in services. Analysis of surveys completed by 30 school boards in Newfoundland and 72 in Alberta revealed that many districts have been providing extensive services for handicapped children. However, the majority of districts do not provide explicit policy on rights of exceptional children. Comparison with survey results from British Columbia and New Brunswick revealed substantial consistency across the provinces. Districts indicated the need for policy on issues of pupil referral, assessment, programing and placement, and on communication with parents. (The appendixes include a 25-page literature review and the survey questionnaire.) (CL)

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ED229988

Special Educational Administrative Policies in Alberta and Newfoundland During 1982: Implications for Policy Development and Service Delivery

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March, 1983

This research was supported by the SARAC of the Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta. It reflects the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the University.

EC152553

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Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the
Council for Exceptional Children
61st, Detroit, MI, April 4-8, 1983

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ABSTRACT

The growing concern of education for the provision of services to all children, including the handicapped, has resulted in the need to develop special education policies for school systems throughout Canada. Unlike the United States, Canada does not have a federally operated Office of Education. As such, the provinces and territories may or may not develop policies concerning the education of the exceptional child. Furthermore, where policy development is initiated it tends to be unique to the province and to the school districts within each province. This project reviewed special education policies and services in school districts in two provinces, Alberta and Newfoundland, and compared the results of this study to reviews of special education policies already completed in British Columbia and New Brunswick.

A survey methodology with follow-up phone contacts was employed. This methodology was similar to that used in British Columbia and New Brunswick and resulted in more than an 80% return of questionnaires.

The results of the survey have provided comparative data regarding the state of policy development in these provinces and indicated substantial consistency across the four provinces in almost all areas surveyed. In addition, the survey results have provided an opportunity to more clearly enunciate policies available as well as identifying those which need to be developed, regarding the provision of educational services to exceptional children. The data were discussed in terms of policy and service prevalence, the perceived need for such policy and whether the policies should be developed by the school district, the province or through some joint undertaking of school districts and provincial authorities. While some twenty-two policy items were examined, the more salient findings indicated that districts perceived the need for policy development at the local level to

focus on matters of pupil referral, assessment, programming and placement; and, on communication with parents. Issues of rights of exceptional children, due process, specialized teacher certification and inter/intra-agency cooperation were perceived by districts to be primarily in the domain of provincial government authorities. Suggestions for joint undertakings were also presented.

The implications of these and other findings were discussed. A prime implication was that both provinces should undertake a leadership role in effecting appropriate service delivery and policy development models which could be utilized in a team effort by district and provincial authorities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors express their appreciation to the following people who gave generously of their time and resources:

To the Newfoundland Department of Education, particularly Dr. Mike Steer and Mr. Art Downey and to the Alberta Education Department, particularly Dr. Heleen McLeod, for their support and cooperation.

To Dr. E. Ratsoy for his consultation throughout the entire project.

To Carmel French for her enhancement of our literature search through two papers she had prepared on modelling by severly and moderately retarded children.

To Dr. Jane Matheison for her enhancement of our literature search through a paper she had prepared on integration of handicapped pupils.

To Philomena McKenzie for her assistance on the statistical analysis of the data.

Finally, to each responding school jurisdiction in Alberta and Newfoundland for their cooperation and participation in this study.

Fred French

Gerard Kysela

INTRODUCTION

Policy is typically considered to be any governing principle, plan or course of action (Webster, 1969). Within the field of Special Education, this definition portends some substantial confusions. For example, administrative policy does not seem to imply more than a principle or plan, and indeed may be more analogous to a course of action. As Church (1980) pointed out, Alberta, for example, provides many services to school children who are a atypical (that is, having mental, physical, or emotional exceptionalities) or who have special needs; however, there seems to be an absence of overriding or service bridging policy from which these programs were developed. The present report attempted to analyze policy and services in Special Education for Alberta and Newfoundland in order to disentangle some of these confusions. Thus, one major focus of the current investigation was to determine district-level perceptions of policy and, if possible, their relationship to existing services.[1]

The contrast of Alberta with Newfoundland should provide an enlightened comparison for a number of reasons. First, Newfoundland, in 1979, established mandatory legislation ensuring that all children receive appropriate education (Goguen, 1980). Alberta continues to function under "permissive" legislation in that local districts are not legislatively required to provide appropriate education for all children in their home district. Hence legislative policy differences may emerge in this study clarifying the impact of these different approaches to legislative supports for Special Education.

Second, both provinces have a large number of citizens living in rural or

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[1]District for the purpose of this paper is to be interpreted as a generic term meaning a local school jurisdiction administered by an elected or appointed School Board recognized under the Schools Act of each province.

outreach areas isolated from the services available in large urban centres. This fact may mean greater autonomy and functioning at the rural local board level in terms of both services and policy. For example, a recent Supreme Court of Alberta decision (O'Byrne, 1978) was required to mandate Special Education services to a child in a rural Alberta School district. However, even after that decision the judge declared that he did not have the authority to rule on the manner with which the order should be complied (O'Byrne, 1978). Thus, local autonomy may be very influential in terms of actual policy-services relationships.

Third, both provinces have exhibited a tenfold increase in services during the last decade. However, one still suspects that overriding policy has not been at the basis of service development. Most Special Education service development has stemmed from meeting perceived needs in the field rather than from an interplay between needs in the field (certainly crucial for service provision) and overarching principles in such fundamental areas as children's rights, appropriate educational experience, teacher/staff preparation and competencies, parental involvement, and program evaluation.

Special Education, for the present investigation, will be defined as any educational service, program, or experience provided to children identified through a diagnostic process as having a special need, disability, or handicap requiring extraordinary education or instruction. In the present investigation then, Special Education policies in Alberta and Newfoundland school districts were reviewed and compared in order to determine the extent and nature of policy development and examine the relationship between these policies and services provided to children with special needs. A similar project has been completed in both British Columbia (Leslie, Goguen, &

Kendall, 1980) and in New Brunswick (Goguen, 1981) providing the framework for the present investigation.

A literature review which focused on substantive issues related to topics covered by the Survey is provided in Appendix A.

Given the plethora of issues, approaches and research studies addressed in the review of literature it seemed quite unusual that school jurisdictions and provincial authorities would not establish policies reflecting the needs of the child and the ability of various educational agencies to address those needs. In addition, it seemed unusual to continue to evolve services without underlying policy statements. Policy development on an ad hoc basis without regard to a cohesive plan for service delivery would seem to be tempting fate as well as permitting inconsistent and perhaps ineffective programming at the expense of the tax payer. With these cautions in mind, the present study attempted to ascertain the current status of Special Educational administrative policies within Alberta and Newfoundland.

METHODOLOGY

Participants. Through the cooperation of the provincial Directors of Special Educational Services in Alberta and Newfoundland, each school district in Alberta (N = 87) and Newfoundland (N = 35) was sent a survey and covering letter regarding their Special Education Administrative Policies. The typical respondent was the Director of Special Educational Services or the Pupil Personnel Director with the Superintendent of Schools completing the survey in the absence of such resource persons.

Procedures. The survey, shown in Appendix B, was based upon the research of Higgins (1977), Leslie et al. (1980) and Goguen (1980) covering 22 areas of potential policy development listed in Table 1. Each district was asked to indicate the following:

> Whether policy existed in each area;
> Their perceived needs for policy development in each of the 22 areas;
> Whether needed policy should be developed by the board, the provincial department of education or both;
> The priority or urgency of policy development in each area.

Policy was defined as any administrative decision (including district circulars and memos) board action, rule or regulation or law that is recorded and available in writing bearing directly or indirectly on the education of handicapped pupils.

Each board was asked to check which services of the list of services shown in Table 2 they offered. As well, each board was asked to specify their policy on integration, mainstreaming, normalization, and the admission of profoundly retarded students to their school system.

A letter from the provincial Director of Special Education preceded the arrival of the questionnaire asking each district's cooperation in the study. As well, phone calls requesting submission of the questionnaire if at all

TABLE 1

Areas Surveyed on Policy Questionnaire

Rights of exceptional children to education
Operational definitions for exceptional children
Screening process (identification) for exceptional children
Referral process of identified exceptional children
Assessment of identified exceptional children
Reporting to parents about the assessment process and results of evaluations of their exceptional children
Parents' access to student's records
Placement of exceptional children (e.g., least restrictive environment)
Individualized educational programs for exceptional children
Program evaluation in Special Education
Due process (procedures for parent's input in decision-making process)
Graduation requirements for exceptional children
Professional development of personnel involved with exceptional children
Special training required of teachers involved with exceptional children
Responsibilities of special education personnel
Physical facilities for exceptional children
Transportation for exceptional children
Administrative governance (e.g., contracted services, appointments)
Fiscal management of funds for services to exceptional children
Inter-agency cooperation or Intra-agency cooperation
Policy development and review

TABLE 2

List of Special Programs Offered by Each School District

Primary classes for educable mentally retarded
Elementary classes for educable mentally retarded
Junior high classes for educable mentally retarded
Senior high classes for educable mentally retarded
Work-study classes for educable mentally retarded
Classes for the trainable mentally retarded
Classes (Programs) for the emotionally disturbed
Classes (Programs) for the gifted
Classes (Programs) for the learning disabled
Resource/remedial room approaches for educable mentally retarded
Classes (Programs) for the hearing impaired
Classes (Programs) for the visual impaired
Classes for the multiple dependent handicapped
School consultative personnel or teams (such as Ed. Psych., Guidance Counsellors, Reading, Speech and Special Education Specialist) to assist in Psycho-educational diagnosis and programming for special students
Special transportation facilities

possible, were made following a specified deadline date for return. The survey was conducted between December 1981 and March 1982 and thus would reflect policy and legislation existing at that time.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Of the 35 school boards in Newfoundland 30 responded, whereas in Alberta 72 of the boards responded of a total possible sample of 87 boards.[2] With an overall response of 83.6% it was felt that a representative sample of school boards was obtained. Furthermore, the rate of return in each province was not statistically different given an 82.8% return rate in Alberta and an 85.7% return rate in Newfoundland.

The first research question addressed concerned the presence of policy on the 21 issues surveyed.[3] Alberta and Newfoundland board statements of policy for these 21 issues are shown in Table 3. Data from the New Brunswick and British Columbia surveys are also included for comparison. As can be seen in the table, only two areas exhibited any significant differences (as measured by a t-test). More Alberta boards had policy regarding parental access to student's records than boards in Newfoundland (X-Al= 51.4%; X-Nf= 20.0%) whereas fewer Alberta boards had policy on the placement of exceptional children (e.g., least restrictive environment) than Newfoundland boards (X-Al= 44.4%; X-Nf = 70.0%). When comparing these data with the results of the New Brunswick study and the British Columbia study, substantial consistency existed across the four provinces in almost all areas surveyed. One exception was British Columbia in which fewer districts reported having a policy dealing with screening processes, referral and assessment processes. Thus, even though legislative differences exist between the provinces, there is little evidence that policy differences of major proportions were present.

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[2] School board lists were provided by each provincial Department of Education. In Alberta a greater number of school jurisdictions exist. However, there were 87 administrative centres for all school jurisdictions.

[3] Twenty one issues were reported since Item 22 was "other". A very small number of Districts with very specific issues responded to this item.

TABLE 3

Percentage of School Districts Having Policy in Specified Areas of Special Education in Newfoundland, Alberta, New Brunswick and British Columbia

Percent Having Policy				Policy Item
Nfld.	Alta.	N.B.[1]	B.C.[1]	
33.3	30.6	45.7	35.8	Rights of exceptional children of education
36.7	38.9	25.7	31.3	Operational definitions
73.3	51.4	60.0	37.3	Screening process
73.3	55.6	57.1	46.3	Referral process
63.3	52.8	57.1	40.3	Assessment
50.0	50.0	28.6	28.4	Reporting to parents assessment results
20.0	51.4*	28.6	14.9	Parent access to student files
70.0	44.4*	40.0	37.3	Placement of students
46.7	33.3	40.0	23.9	Individual educational program
30.0	25.0	28.6	22.4	Program evaluation
30.0	34.7	28.6	22.4	Due process
20.0	9.7	25.7	3.0	Graduation requirements
30.0	31.9	17.1	25.4	Professional development of staff
33.3	11.1	8.6	9.0	Special training required of staff
40.0	56.9	34.3	53.7	Responsibilities of personnel
20.0	12.5	14.3	10.4	Physical facilities
36.7	37.5	34.3	31.3	Transportation
6.7	16.7	2.9	22.4	Administrative governance
23.3	22.2	25.7	13.4	Fiscal management of funds
20.0	27.8	28.6	Inter 29.9 Intra 16.4	Inter/Intra-agency cooperation
16.7	29.2	17.1	14.9	Policy development and review

* $p < .05$

[1] These data were obtained from Leslie et al. (1980) and from Goguen (1981).

The most frequently identified areas of existing policy development for both Newfoundland and Alberta included the following:

- screening processes
- referral processes
- assessment procedures
- reporting to parents
- student placement
- responsibilities of teaching staff.

These results seemed quite reasonable given the importance placed by both provinces upon the identification and placement of students with special needs. Interestingly, approximately one third or less of the boards of both provinces stated they had a policy in the following areas:

- rights of children to education
- operational definitions of exceptionality
- program evaluation
- professional development of staff
- special training and preparation of staff
- physical facilities
- fiscal management of funds
- interagency cooperation
- policy development and review.
- due process
- graduation requirements
- transportation
- administrative governance

Furthermore, when examining the data asking for priority ratings for policy development, Table 4 revealed that approximately twenty per cent or more of the Newfoundland Districts saw no need for policy in the following areas:

- operational definitions of handicaps
- screening process
- referral process
- transportation
- administrative governance
- fiscal management.

TABLE 4

Percentage of School Districts in Newfoundland and Alberta
Stating No Need for Policy in Specified Areas of Special Education

Percent Stating No Need		Areas of Policy
Nfld.	Alta.	
14.3	27.9	Rights of exceptional children to education
21.4	26.9	Operational definitions for exceptional children
20.7	31.8	Screening process (identification) for exceptional children
21.4	30.9	Referral process of identified exceptional children
17.9	27.5	Assessment of identified exceptional children
14.3	26.1	Reporting to parents about the assessment process and results of evaluation of their exceptional children
10.7	33.8	Parents' access to student's records
18.5	33.3	Placement of exceptional children (e.g., least restrictive environment)
14.3	27.3	Individualized educational programs for exceptional children
6.9	16.4	Program evaluation in special education
18.5	25.8	Due process (procedures for parents' input in decision-making process)
7.1	24.2	Graduation requirements for exceptional children (e.g., certificate of attendance, regular diploma)
6.9	17.9	Professional development of personnel involved with exceptional children
6.7	19.7	Special training required of teachers involved with exceptional children
6.7	22.7	Responsibilities of special education personnel (e.g., job description)
3.4	23.5	Physical facilities for exceptional children (e.g., accessibility to school buildings)
25.0	27.3	Transportation for exceptional children
21.4	28.8	Administrative governance (e.g., contracted services, appointments)
21.4	28.4	Fiscal management of funds for services to exceptional children (e.g., allocation, recording, accountability)
14.3	31.3	Inter-agency cooperation (e.g., Indian Affairs, Health and Social Services) or Intra-agency cooperation (e.g., Dept. regular education, physical education)
14.8	17.9	Policy development and review

In every area of policy the Alberta response rate for no need was higher than the Newfoundland rate indicating a greater preference for no policy development regarding many of these issues. Despite this greater preference for not developing policy in Alberta it is important to note that the highest percentage stating no need was only approximately 33%, leaving 67% who saw a need for policy development.

In terms of the need and responsibility for policy development, Table 5 presents the boards' responses to the questionnaire regarding their perceptions of which jurisdiction should be responsible for developing policy.

This table demonstrated that in terms of provincial department policy development, some consistency existed between boards in the two provinces; they agreed that only three areas really lie within the provincial department domain:

- rights of children
- operational definitions
- special staff training.

As well, between 15% and 61% of the boards in each province saw these three areas as joint policy development issues. These ratings seem reasonable in that provincial or joint board/provincial responsibility would insure consistency of services and clientele as well as consistency of competencies of teachers across the province.

Regarding district policy needs, boards in both provinces perceived a substantial need for greater policy development at the district level for several areas:

- reporting to parents
- parental access to files

TABLE 5

Percentages of Alberta and Newfoundland Districts Without Policy Recognizing a Need for Policy Development in Specified Areas of Special Education, By Jurisdictional Responsibility[1]

TOPIC	District Responsibility		Provincial Responsibility		Joint Responsibility	
	Nfld.	Alta.	Nfld.	Alta.	Nfld.	Alta.
Rights of Exceptional Children	0.0	4.3	38.9	39.1	61.1	43.5
Operational Definitions	16.7	19.0	38.9	33.3	38.9	26.2
Screening Process	62.5	60.5	0.0	6.1	37.5	24.2
Referral Process	28.6	81.3	0.0	3.1	71.4	6.3
Assessment	50.0	66.7	0.0	3.0	50.0	18.2
Reporting to Parents	64.3	85.7	0.0	0.0	35.7	2.9
Parent Access to Files	81.8	48.5	4.5	6.5	9.1	27.3
Placement	57.1	55.9	0.0	2.9	42.9	23.5
Individual Educational Programs	50.0	55.8	0.0	2.3	35.7	20.9
Program Evaluation	35.0	34.6	0.0	9.5	65.0	46.2
Due Process	27.8	33.2	11.1	16.7	55.6	38.1
Graduation Requirements	39.1	28.8	8.7	13.6	47.8	35.6
Professional Staff Development	15.0	37.8	10.0	13.3	70.0	35.6
Special Training of Staff	10.0	8.6	50.0	58.6	35.0	15.5
Personnel Responsibilities	50.0	69.0	0.0	3.4	50.0	6.9
Physical Facilities	21.7	35.6	21.7	6.8	52.2	37.3
Transportation	5.9	14.3	29.4	9.5	41.2	57.1
Administrative Governance	26.9	50.0	3.8	0.0	50.0	25.0
Fiscal Management	13.6	45.1	13.6	0.0	54.5	35.3
Inter-agency Cooperation	18.2	29.2	0.0	2.1	77.3	41.7
Policy Development and Review	13.6	48.9	0.0	4.3	77.3	31.9

[1] Percentages do not always total to 100 because Table 5 contains only Districts who did not have policy. Data from Table 4 should not be added to data in Table 5 because Table 4 represents all Districts with and without policy who stated there was no need for policy development.

- individualized educational program plans
- staff responsibilities
- placement
- screening
- assessment

These perceptions seemed reasonable in view of the local or colloquial nature of these policy areas and the need for immediacy of action regarding issues which might arise in these areas. An interesting split between Newfoundland and Alberta existed on the issue of referral, Newfoundland boards held this to be a joint undertaking. Alberta boards saw policy development, fiscal management and administrative governance as being more of a local responsibility than did Newfoundland boards. Yet, these Newfoundland districts frequently lacked policy in these three areas.

Joint policy development was suggested in several areas by boards in both provinces:

- rights of children
- program evaluation
- due process
- graduation requirements
- professional development
- physical facilities
- transportation
- fiscal management
- interagency and intra agency cooperation
- policy development and review

It should be noted that with the exception of parental access to files and transportation Newfoundland Districts reported a greater preference for joint action than did Alberta Districts across most categories. For example, Newfoundland school Districts reported a need for joint responsibility in the area of assessment. Again, these perceptions seemed reasonable as several of the areas involved extensive financial commitments and some involve

coordination and interrelationships between several agencies beyond the authority of the local board of education. Only 56% of Newfoundland school jurisdictions have school consultative teams to carry out assessments; this may account for their stating that assessment should be a joint responsibility.

The priority ratings[4] found in Table 6 were frequently consistent between provinces. Within the jurisdiction of provincial responsibility for policy development the following ratings were worthy of note in terms of a consistency of priority action:

- Rights of children--Newfoundland 6.1, Alberta 5.7, [5]
- Operational definitions--Newfoundland 7.3, Alberta 5.6,
- Professional staff development--Newfoundland 7.5, Alberta 6.5,
- Special training of staff--Newfoundland 7, Alberta 5.3,
- Transportation--Newfoundland 4.8, Alberta 7.0
- Physical facilities--Newfoundland 7.0, Alberta 5.6.
- Graduation Requirements--Newfoundland 6.5, Alberta 6.3

These results generally suggest a modest prioritization of policy development in the areas assessed with Newfoundland districts typically rating the priority for policy development slightly higher than Alberta districts. The implications for the Newfoundland and Alberta Governments are that policies on rights of children, operational definitions and specialized training of staff should receive further attention. In addition, in several areas surveyed, school districts in both provinces reported a degree of urgency for joint undertakings between school districts and the provincial government.

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[4]Each area was rated in priority on a scale from 1 (for very low priority) to 9 (for very high priority). Items averaging at or above 6 were considered to indicate a priority.

[5]These figures represent the average ratings across all school districts in each province.

TABLE 6

Priority Ratings at Alberta and Newfoundland District Without Policy in Specified Areas of Special Education

Percentages of Districts Without Policy are Provided Where Such Percentages Exceed 25%

TOPICS RATED	DISTRICT NEED				PROVINCIAL NEED				JOINT NEED			
	Nfld. %	Urgency Rating*	Alta. %	Urgency Rating	Nfld. %	Urgency Rating	Alta. %	Urgency Rating	Nfld. %	Urgency Rating	Alta. %	Urgency Rating
Rights of Exceptional Children	-	None	-	4.0	41.2	6.1	45.0	5.7	58.8	7.5	50.0	6.2
Operational Definitions	-	6.3	-	4.3	40.0	7.3	41.9	5.6	40.0	7.7	35.5	6.0
Screening Process	57.1	7.0	64.2	5.9	-	None	-	4.0	42.9	7.0	28.6	7.9
Referral Process	28.6	5.0	89.3	6.1	-	None	-	2.0	71.4	7.8	-	5.0
Assessment	50.0	6.8	75.0	6.4	-	None	-	1.0	50.0	7.4	-	6.0
Reporting to Parents	75.0	5.3	93.5	6.1	-	None	-	None	25.0	7.5	-	7.0
Parent Access to Files	78.9	5.1	55.2	5.4	-	2.0	-	5.5	-	7.5	37.1	6.7
Placement	57.1	7.8	66.7	5.9	-	None	-	4.0	42.9	7.0	29.6	6.9
Individual Education Program	50.0	6.2	65.9	5.7	-	None	-	5.0	50.0	8.4	25.0	5.1
Program Evaluation	36.8	5.9	34.9	5.8	-	None	-	4.6	63.2	7.1	53.3	7.0
Due Process	35.7	5.6	37.8	4.6	-	4.5	-	4.6	50.0	5.3	43.2	6.6
Graduation Requirements	42.9	6.3	36.4	4.5	-	6.5	-	6.3	47.6	7.3	45.5	6.0
Professional Development of staff	-	6.3	43.5	5.0	-	7.5	-	6.5	72.2	7.9	41.0	6.6
Special Training of Staff	-	8.0	-	3.8	47.1	7.0	69.6	5.3	41.2	7.4	-	6.2
Responsibilities of Personnel	47.1	6.0	86.9	5.2	-	None	-	9.0	52.9	7.2	-	8.5
Physical Facilities	-	6.4	40.9	4.6	-	5.3	-	5.3	57.1	7.6	50.0	6.5
Transportation	-	3.0	-	5.2	33.3	4.8	-	7.0	58.3	6.9	72.7	6.0
Administration Governance	41.2	5.3	65.9	4.4	-	4.0	-	None	52.9	5.9	34.1	6.0
Fiscal Management	-	6.3	57.5	4.9	-	6.3	-	None	62.5	6.4	42.5	6.3
Inter-agency Cooperation	-	5.8	41.2	5.0	-	None	-	6.0	78.9	5.9	55.9	7.2
Policy Development and Review	-	7.0	57.9	5.2	-	None	-	4.0	83.3	6.5	39.5	6.5

*Urgency Ratings were averaged across school boards completing the 1 to 9 rating for each policy area.

The survey also asked each district to indicate the types of service available to students with special needs. Table 7 presents the percentages of boards providing each of several services to students in their district. Several interesting findings can be discussed in these data.

Districts from both provinces generally provided programs and classes for the educable mentally handicapped up to and including high school. As well, approximately one half or more of the districts had work/study programs for mildly-moderately mentally handicapped students. In addition, many boards in each province had Resource Room Programs for mildly delayed pupils, classes for multiple dependent handicapped, and employed school consultative teams for assessment and program planning.

Differences emerged between the provinces in areas of classes for trainable mentally handicapped students, classes for the gifted and the learning disabled, and in the provision of special transportation facilities. With respect to the learning disabled, Newfoundland boards attempted to provide educational services under the philosophy of a noncategorical approach. As such Newfoundland boards offered programs and classes for these students in resource rooms and in segregated classroom groupings. Hence more learning disabled pupils may have been receiving special instruction in Newfoundland than these figures indicated. However despite the Newfoundland local board's claim to a non-categorical approach to Special Education, it seemed that many districts may have continued to use the label "educable mentally retarded" for many classes.

In the area of policy on integration and the admission of the profoundly retarded, Table 8 presents the survey results for each board's policy development.

TABLE 7

Percentage of Boards Providing Each Type of Special Education Service to Their Students

Nfld.	Alta.	
83	68	Primary classes for educable mentally retarded
86	79	Elementary classes for educable mentally retarded
73	76	Junior high classes for educable mentally retarded
56	33*	Senior high classes for educable mentally retarded
63	45	Work-study classes for educable mentally retarded
96	59**	Classes for the trainable mentally retarded
13	31	Classes for the emotionally disturbed
3	45***	Classes for the gifted
13	88***	Classes for the learning disabled
53	63	Resource/remedial room approach for the educable mentally retarded
10	23	Classes for the hearing impaired
6	22	Classes for the visually impaired
36	38	Classes for the multiple dependent handicapped
56	74	School consultative personnel or teams
73	40**	Special transportation facilities

* $p < .05$, t-test employed.
** $p < .005$, t-test employed.
*** $p < .001$, t-test employed.

TABLE 8

Percentage of Boards with Full or Limited Policy on Integration Topics and Acceptance of the Profoundly Mentally Handicapped

Newfoundland		Alberta		
Policy	Limited Policy	Policy	Limited Policy	
60*	16	30*	26	Integration of special pupils
16	20	15	11	Mainstreaming
30	13	19	5	Normalization
40**	20	9**	19	Admission of profoundly retarded

* $p < .102$, t-test employed.
** $p < .002$, t-test employed.

Newfoundland boards had a more extensive policy regarding the integration of special students and the admission of profoundly mentally handicapped students than did Alberta boards. This difference existed even though differences in actual program offerings in the area of the multiple dependent handicapped were not found (see Table 7). The district response for policy on integration may also mean that more learning disabled students are dealt with in regular classrooms in Newfoundland districts than in Alberta perhaps helping to explain the large difference in special programs for these students between Newfoundland and Alberta boards (see Table 7). The higher percentage of school jurisdictions in Newfoundland having policy on integration of exceptional pupils and on the admission of profoundly retarded may be related to the Newfoundland governments policy encouraging integration and admission of all children.

The data in Table 9 portray the percentage of Districts in each province having policy on rights of children and operational definitions.

Table 9 reveals a rather consistent finding that on the average 40% of Newfoundland and 32% of Alberta districts operating various programs did have policy on the rights of exceptional children. Most programs for the learning disabled in both provinces operate without stated policy on the rights of exceptional children. In Alberta only 22% of the districts have policy on the rights of exceptional children while operating consultative teams. In Newfoundland however, 41% of the districts operating consultative teams do so with such a policy.

With respect to the policies regarding operational definitions, in Alberta the findings are somewhat higher and more consistent. About 42% of

TABLE 9

Percentage of Districts in Newfoundland and Alberta Providing Various Services for Exceptional Children With Policy on Operational Definitions and Rights of Exceptional Children

Service/Program Offered	Rights of Children		Operational Definitions	
	Nfld. Percentage	Alta. Percentage	Nfld. Percentage	Alta. Percentage
Primary EMR	32.0	30.6	40.0	38.8
Elementary EMR	34.6	28.1	42.3	36.8
Junior High EMR	40.9	30.9	45.5	40.0
Senior High EMR	41.2	41.7	47.1	50.0
Work Study for EMR	42.1	33.3	47.4	42.4
TMR	34.5	34.9	37.9	39.5
Emotionally Disturbed	75.0	34.8	75.0	43.6
Gifted	0.0	33.3	0.0	42.4
Learning Disabled	25.0	26.6	25.0	39.1
Resource Room for EMR	43.8	28.3	50.0	47.8
Hearing Impaired	66.7	29.4	66.7	47.1
Visually Impaired	50.0	37.5	50.0	50.0
Multiple Dependent Handicapped	36.4	35.7	36.4	39.3
Consultative Teams	41.2	22.6	41.2	34.0
Average	40.2	32.0	43.0	42.2

the Alberta boards offering services had policies in this area. In Newfoundland the percentage of districts offering these services with such policy was about 43%, similiar to the 40% figure regarding policy on the rights of children. These data suggest that even though many districts in each province offer various services, fewer than half have policies regarding the rights of their students and the operational definitions of various handicapping conditions. These policies may exist at the provincial level particularly as they relate to funding, but the districts do not seem to have policy in these very important areas at the District level.

While not reported in this table it is interesting to note that Newfoundland districts which operate consultative teams typically provide more policy statements on referral, screening, assessment, placement and individualized program development than do Alberta districts. Approximately 80% of Newfoundland districts operating consultative teams have a corresponding policy on referral screening and assessment matters. In Alberta about half of the districts with consultative teams have such policy. About 50% Newfoundland districts having consultative teams provide policy statements for IEP development. In Alberta approximately one third of the Districts provide such policy.

In terms of an analysis of conjoint policies, most of the Newfoundland districts reporting a policy on pupil placement also had a policy detailing the integration process. In Alberta, one-half of the Districts reporting had such a policy.

In addition to policy in the preceeding areas, services to exceptional individuals typically required the need for program planning, program evaluation, employment of trained teachers and professional development

services to those personnel now employed. Tables 10 and 11 provide current information in Newfoundland and Alberta describing the percentage of districts with each service having polices in these areas. Examination of Tables 10 and 11 demonstrates the relative consistency across these four key aspects by province.

Policy on the use of IEPs is found in about 38% of the districts operating programs for the exceptional child in Newfoundland and Alberta. Exceptions in Newfoundland are in Work Study programs (approximately 65%) and programs for the emotionally disturbed (about 75%). None of the districts offering programs for the gifted in Newfoundland have written policy on the use of IEPs.

Policy on Program Evaluation is stated in about 27% of Newfoundland districts and about 25% of Alberta districts. It should be noted that districts in Alberta may not address policy on program evaluation because the Provincial Government operates an evaluative component through its regional offices of Education. No such component is available in Newfoundland.

On the average less than 13% of districts in Alberta have policy on teacher certification as it pertains to educating the exceptional child, nor does the Alberta government have any policy on this issue. In Newfoundland the percentages vary according to the type of exceptionality addressed averaging approximately 32%. The Newfoundland government does however encourage the hiring of appropriately trained personnel.

In Alberta and Newfoundland, 28% of the districts operate programs for the exceptional child with policy on the professional development of its staff. Again, in each of these policy areas, programs do exist on an extensive basis, often in the absence of any overreaching board/district policies in critical areas associated with these services.

TABLE 10

Percentage of Districts in Newfoundland and Alberta
Which Have Policy On The Use of Individualized Programs and Program Evaluation

PROGRAM	INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PLANS		PROGRAM EVALUATION	
	Nfld. % Operating	Alta. % Operating	Nfld. % Operating	Alta. % Operating
Primary EMR	48.0	66.7	53.0	27.5
Elementary EMR	50.0	29.2	34.6	22.8
Junior High EMR	50.0	34.5	36.4	23.6
Senior High EMR	47.1	41.7	29.4	20.8
Work Study for EMR	63.2	42.4	42.1	27.3
TMR	48.3	39.5	31.0	27.9
Emotionally Disturbed	75.0	52.2	25.0	26.1
Gifted	0.0	39.2	0.0	33.3
Learning Disabled	25.0	32.8	0.0	21.9
Resource Room for EMR	56.2	43.5	37.5	28.3
Hearing Impaired	33.3	35.3	66.7	17.6
Visually Impaired	0.0	37.5	0.0	18.7
Multiple Dependent Handicapped	54.5	35.7	18.2	25.0
Consultative Teams	52.9	30.2	23.5	22.6
Average	39.5	37.6	26.9	24.3

TABLE 11

Percentage of Districts in Newfoundland and Alberta which have Policy on Specialist Teacher Certification and Professional Development

PROGRAM	CERTIFICATION		PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	
	Nfld. % Operating	Alta. % Operating	Nfld. % Operating	Alta. % Operating
Primary EMR	53.0	4.2	23.0	35.3
Elementary EMR	34.6	7.0	20.8	
Junior High EMR	36.4	7.3	21.8	22.7
Senior High EMR	41.2	16.7	29.4	25.0
Work Study for EMR	36.8	12.1	42.1	36.4
TMR	34.5	9.3	31.0	34.9
Emotionally Disturbed	25.0	17.4	75.0	26.1
Gifted	0.0	12.1	0.0	33.3
Learning Disabled	25.0	10.9	25.0	31.2
Resource Room for EMR	37.5	13.0	37.5	37.0
Hearing Impaired	0.0	11.6	13.3	29.4
Visually Impaired	50.0	25.0	0.0	18.7
Multiple Dependent Handicapped	46.5	10.7	45.5	35.7
Consultative Teams	41.2	17.3	35.3	28.3
Average	31.5	12.7	28.9	28.1

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study examined policy regarding twenty-two substantive programs and services for exceptional pupils. Any policy statements reflected in rules, regulations and procedures existing in various school jurisdictions in Newfoundland and Alberta were included in this analysis. The study examined policy statements on integration, mainstreaming, normalization and admission of the profoundly retarded to determine their quality and intent.

Within the limitations of the study discussed at the end of this section, it seems reasonable to conclude that many districts have provided and are continuing to provide extensive programs and services for exceptional children, despite a lack of mandatory legislation in the province of Alberta. Indeed, some of these services operate with policy statements concerning the rights of the exceptional child. However, the majority of districts do not provide explicit policy on such rights. While it may be true that the rights of the exceptional child are well protected through concerned teachers, it should be noted that in the event of a dispute between the school and the home which may result in legal action, the district may be found remiss given that many districts and both governments lack specified policy guidelines. It is interesting to note that both provinces are currently preparing policy statements on integration. As well, the advent of the Canada Act provides national direction particularly in Section 15 for this issue.

Some would argue that not having policy provides for greater flexibility in arranging needed services within a flexible framework. Others would argue that providing programs without policy permits and may even encourage abuses of the system no matter how well intentioned.

Aside from the issue of the rights of the exceptional child and the involvement of the parents in placement and program decisions, the study found few districts with policy regarding operational definitions of exceptionalities. Such a lack of policy may well contribute to inappropriate placements and the continuance or evolvement of programs without due regard for their purpose.

Perhaps more serious is the fact that 66% of Alberta districts and 58.8% of Newfoundland districts reported they did not have a policy on defining exceptionality, yet operated consultative teams. Such a finding has rather serious implications when one considers that these consultative teams are involved not only in programming but in placing exceptional children.

Newfoundland does have a provincial policy that encourages the employment of appropriately trained teachers. Alberta has no policy in this area. Furthermore, only 11.1% of Alberta districts reported policy on this issue. Unfortunately the survey did not specifically address training of consultative team members. In addition within the province of Alberta, unlike Newfoundland, school psychologists have to meet rigid professional standards as detailed by the Psychologists' Association of Alberta prior to practicing as a licensed psychologist. As such, for Alberta some safeguards exist. In Newfoundland the role of school psychologists is often filled by Guidance Counsellors.

More districts provide consultative services in Alberta than Newfoundland. While this may be tied to the nature of Learning Disability funding in Alberta, it also shows recognition of the need for such support services. Approximately one half of the programs into which the majority of children are served in Newfoundland are functioning without consultative

personnel. Thus about half of Newfoundland districts lack the necessary local specialist support personnel. However, the Newfoundland government does provide a limited number of centrally administered educational assessment personnel.

One rather surprising finding was that only 92.6% of districts operating programs for the learning disabled in Alberta provided consultative personnel. Given funding guidelines in Alberta one would expect 100%. This aspect could warrant further study. However, it should be noted that the approximately 79% of the districts without their own consultative teams may contract to private agencies and not report this as providing a direct consultative service.

Another concern related to assessment, program development, placement and training of personnel is that only approximately 30% of districts in each province have a policy concerning the continuing professional development of personnel inolved with exceptional children.

The review of literature (see Appendix A) addressed the need for planning for integration of the exceptional child into the educational mainstream. However, 23% districts in Newfoundland and 43% of school jurisdictions in Alberta still have no policy calling for the integration of exceptional pupils. None of the districts have a policy addressing planning activities for integration. This does not mean that planning is not under way. It does mean the districts have no policy addressing integration procedures, as such planning may be localized and dependent on personnel. However, only one third of Newfoundland districts and about 11% of Alberta districts have a policy requiring the hiring of appropriately trained personnel. The Newfoundland Department of Education does however encourage the hiring of such personnel. Alberta's Department of Education does not. Furthermore, less than one third

of school districts in each province has a policy covering the professional development of its staff.

With regard to the breakdown of school jurisdiction perceptions of the need for policy, who should be responsible for developing that policy and the urgency for which development should take place, a number of general and specific trends were found.

First, the general trend. Fewer districts in Newfoundland said there was no need of policy than did districts in Alberta. On the whole policy development was not perceived as an urgent undertaking by districts in either province. However, Newfoundland, in the case of joint undertakings, did claim some urgency. Alberta school districts saw joint undertakings as being more pressing than those of the district or Department.

Generally department involvement whether singularly or in association with the district was perceived within both provinces as important in regard to:

- graduation requirements
- rights of exceptional children;
- operational definitions (perhaps addressing the need for consistency);
- program evaluation;
- due process (although neither province showed a clear preference);
- professional development (although Alberta was divided on this issue);
- special training of teachers (a clear mandate for department responsibility by both provinces);
- physical facilities;
- transportation issues;
- interagency intraagency cooperation.

Newfoundland districts tended to see more department involvement than did Alberta in the case of policy development and fiscal management of monies to exceptional children.

District responsibilities emphasized in Alberta related to policy development in screening, referral, assessment, placement, individualized program planning, responsibilities of personnel and administrative governance.

A final note is that 30% of Newfoundland districts reported reviewing policy. In Alberta only 15% reported policy review despite the fact that approximately 49% said such was a district responsibility. It would appear that, particularly for Alberta, District policy development and review is not viewed as a high priority.

One limitation of this study was that certain definitions were not fully specified. For example, it is suspected that the question dealing with policy on hiring of trained personnel may have been interpreted by some respondents as being general teacher certification requirements as opposed to special training in the teaching of exceptional children. As such, this area may present an inflated picture of the situation surrounding the employment of trained personnel.

The present survey did not set out to examine provincial policy. However in some matters provincial policy provided guidelines for district operation precluding district policy development. Futhermore, a check of provincial policy statements revealed that such is very limited except in the case of guidelines for receipt of provincial funding. Both provinces have procedural statements covering the granting of funds for the provision of special educational services to districts. While these funding guidelines often call for pupil screening it is important to note that data and assessments obtained to label a pupil for funding and placement do not necessarily address program planning needs. Indeed, it is suggested that the program required by a child should determine placement, and not the label for funding purposes.

A final note relative to limitations concerns the time frame of the study which spanned an approximate one-year period during which a number of changes may have taken place in district policy statements. For example, it will be interesting to observe the effects of a Newfoundland Government Resource Book for use with trainable mentally handicapped children. This Resource Book may impact on the finding that the majority of Newfoundland programs for the trainable child operate without policy.

Despite the limitations of the study it has been found that some districts are operating programs for many pupils without the provision of policy concerning such operation. Furthermore appropriately 85% of Newfoundland Districts and about 80% of Alberta School Districts have stated that a need exists for policy development. The debate is whether such policy should be devised by the Province, each jurisdiction, or in a joint partnership. It would seem to fall to the provincial government of each province to address an educational program for local school jurisdictions regarding the need for and development of policy covering the education of the handicapped. Indeed there are areas where the provincial government itself while recognizing that the local autonomy of the school jurisdictions should develop specific policy statements.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Both provinces appear to attempt to ensure adequate local autonomy. It is important to note, however, that the provincial department of education as the body responsible for education has a mandate and a responsibility to fulfill its leadership role in providing a cohesive comprehensive policy concerning the education of all children including the exceptional.

Issues such as the students' rights to an appropriate education within their own community and to receiving the same quality of education within in each district of a province have yet to be addressed.

It is recommended that both provincial governments undertake a strong leadership role in altering the course of administrative policy development in Special Education. Provincial Departments of Education could thus institute a mechanism for addressing policy development at both the provincial and district levels. Higgins (1977) provides one such model which might serve as a prototype for provincial planning.

Based on the current survey the provincial departments could undertake responsibility for policy development in the areas of rights of exceptional children, due process, specialized staff training and inter/intra-agency communication and cooperation.

Shared leadership for policy development could produce policies for operational definitions, parent access to records, program evaluation, professional development of staff, physical facilities, special pupil transportation, fiscal management and policy development.

Districts could proceed with policies for screening, referral, assessment, reporting, placement, individualized programming, graduation, personnel responsibilities and administrative governance, seen by the boards

as being within their realm of responsibility.

Given the ambiguity regarding services and programs available to the learning-disabled apparent in Newfoundland, it is recommended that Newfoundland undertake a review of its non-categorical approach to insure that local school jurisdictions are indeed utilizing a non-categorical system.

Given that only 52% of Newfoundland districts and 74% of Alberta Districts provide consultative teams to support diagnosis and programming of exceptional pupils, it is recommended that both provinces undertake a review of their policy and support systems in this area.

Both provincial Departments of Education are to be congratulated for their current attention to the issue of integration. It is recommended that policy development on integration should be continued, that the notion of the least restrictive setting be encouraged and that the possibility of mandatory compliance regarding the appropriate education of all children within a continuum of educational programs be investigated.

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APPENDIX A

LITERATURE REVIEW

Within the context of special educational administrative policies, French and Kysela (1983) isolated 22 areas for survey in a Special Education Administrative Policies study of Newfoundland and Alberta. This review attempts to encapsulate some of the critical issues in the literature associated with policy in these domains. Major substantive areas include the definitions of exceptionalities, historical and administrative issues, integration, assessment, the Individual Education Plan, teacher preparation, and program evaluation.

Exceptionality Defined. Without reliving the longstanding debates over defining exceptionality as evidenced in the work of Kirk (1972), Lilly (1979) and Cruickshank and Johnson (1975), the following notion has been adopted in this paper regarding the definition of an educationally exceptional child. An educationally exceptional child is any child who differs in his/her mode of dealing with the educational environment to such an extent as to require a modification of typical school routine, program or practices in order for the child to have the maximum opportunity for successful development. Such a notion of exceptionality encompasses a wide variety of children, degrees of ability and the spectrum of known classifications of exceptionality. This definition is based on Kirk (1972), Lilly (1979) and Cruickshank and Johnson (1975).

The notion of the school routine requiring adjustment to suit the dynamic needs of each child provides an initial basis as to why a different mode of education for the exceptional child is required. Such children as noted by Cruickshank and Johnson (1975) have similar needs to those of the majority of

children. In addition, they have different needs relative to their type of exceptionality. It is now more generally accepted that both types of needs must be addressed by the educational system. Such an undertaking requires alterations in the typical functioning of the school. However do schools have policy reflecting such differing needs and the ways and means to meet these needs?

Brief Overview of History of Special Education. It is important to note that an undertaking such as stating policy in Special Education service areas is a relatively recent development. Indeed, Lilly (1979) has stated that it was not until the late 1800s that those individuals with special educational needs were addressed through the use of residential programs--typically, privately funded. Lilly (1979) went on to write that by the early 1900s, universal education in American society was more firmly entrenched for those able to benefit from it. Not until the period of 1925-1960 was there a widespread growth in the education of children with special needs. Indeed, Kirk (1964) has noted a tenfold increase between 1920 and the late 1950s in class enrolments for the educable mentally retarded. He cautioned, however, that research findings could not justify the conclusion that special class placement was superior to regular class education for the educable mentally retarded.

However, it is crucial to note that, not only was policy in Special Education very limited, but few if any teachers were appropriately trained; the settings for special classes within the school system of ten ranged from storage rooms to boiler rooms (Lilly, 1979). Indeed, Lilly also noted that it was not until the early 1950s that graduate programs in teacher preparation for Special Education were begun by Lloyd Dunn at Peabody College in

Nashville, William Cruickshank at Syracuse University and Samuel Kirk at the University of Illinois. Only in 1958 were funds for teacher preparation provided to the colleges, universities and state educational agencies by the United States Government. Not until late 1975 with the passage of Public Law 94-142 did the United States adopt mandatory, free, appropriate education for all children (Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1979).

In Canada the Commission on Emotional and Learning Disorders in Children Report (CELDIC) of 1970 was a landmark asserting the rights of all children to an appropriate education such that every child may attempt to reach his/her full potential (Karagianis and Nesbitt, 1980). However, the Government of Canada holds that education is a provincial responsibility. Thus, no legislative mandates concerning the public education of exceptional children exist at the federal level. However, Section 15 of the Constitution Act of Canada (1982) may have an impact on the education of exceptional children. Section 15 states that every individual is equal before and under the law. As well, every individual is entitled to equal protection and benefit without discrimination. Among those factors which cannot be used to discriminate against individuals are mental and physical disabilities. In addition, a number of provinces have developed legislative statements concerning the education of handicapped students. Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland have legislation mandating provisions for the special education of the exceptional child. The remaining provinces have permissive legislation in that districts may but do not have to provide these special services (Goguen and Leslie, 1981).

Because of the autonomy of provincial and regional authorities regarding service development and the decision making process, Special Education in

Canada has undergone disparate development. Furthermore, there have been few studies addressing Special Educational needs, policies and services in Canada. As such, it is more difficult to ascertain the current status of Special Education. One example is the lack of public knowledge concerning mandatory legislation similar to Public Law 94-142 within the Canadian provinces. Nevertheless, service expansion has been extensive during the last ten years. Sometimes this service expansion has occurred through effective policy development and implementation, while in other cases there has been an absence of policy. Reviews of these areas can be found in Csapo and Goguen (1980) and Kysela and Stewin (1980).

Administrative Issues. Cruickshank and Johnson (1975) have captured the flavour of a pervasive problem in educating the exceptional child. That problem concerns those involved with the education of the exceptional child who were, and in some cases still are, perceived by regular teachers to be different. Indeed, some special educators assumed and continue to assume a Messianic role to save their charges, thereby creating a schism between regular and special education. Cruickshank and Johnson (1975) have noted that as a result of this schism the integration of exceptional children into the regular grades has been a heated topic of discussion since the 1940s.

Wolfensberger (1972), one of the main proponents of the notion of normalization, held that the underlying assumption in the process of normalization is the utilization of means which are as culturally normative as possible to establish, enable or support behaviors, experiences and appearances which are as culturally normative as possible. Two other terms commonly used in reference to normalization are integration and mainstreaming. Going further with separate definitions of the terms mainstreaming,

normalization, and integration, is not an easy task since various authors offer differing aspects to illuminate their conceptualization of the three terms. Kaufman, Gottlieb, Agard and Kubic (1975) noted that, while appearing to be components of each other, these three terms should not be construed as synonymous.

We prefer to conceptualize these terms as Karagianis and Nesbit (1979) did in suggesting that integration, as it applies to exceptional children, relates to the principles that underly both normalization and mainstreaming. Thus, integration means that handicapped children should be placed with their non-handicapped peers depending upon their needs, degree of handicap, and the appropriateness of the educational environment. It is crucial to note that even under PL 94-142 the intent was and is not to place all exceptional children in the same educational environment. The intent was and remains that handicapped children should have the same right to a free and appropriate education as do their non-handicapped peers. Furthermore, the handicapped child's education should be carried out in the least restrictive educational environment.

The attainment of this undertaking entails the following generally accepted components:

1. Evaluating and assessing each child to determine his/her present level of functioning;
2. Devising an individualized plan of action to meet the child's needs;
3. Placing the child in the most appropriate and least restrictive setting to operate the plan of action;
4. Continually evaluating the child's adaptation to the setting and to the program plan, making changes to either the setting or the program as the child's needs change.

This is a dynamic sequential fourstep process. Key elements in achieving this process include mechanisms for providing financial support and appropriately trained personnel within the system. In addition, mechanicsms for providing policy and procedural statements for the operation of the system which are sensitive to the uniqueness of the various regions involved would also appear necessary. These policy and procedural statements are needed to address items including philosophical issues, teacher-parent-student issues, referral-assessment-program development matters, as well as program evaluation and planning.

The provision of increased opportunities for handicapped pupils in the educational mainstream has resulted from criticisms of segregated environments and from cautions about the potential for success in special classroom settings (Dunn, 1968). More positive reasons for increased interactions between children in the educational mainstream are offered by writers such as Meisels (1977). Positive reasons include acceptance of the rights of the individual and the equality of educational opportunity as reflected in legal, moral, social and educational justifications. A recent publication by the Newfoundland Department of Education (1982) highlighted some of the benefits of mainstreaming. Among these benefits were the following:

1. Mainstreaming can help handicapped children learn to cope with the outside world;

2. Mainstreaming may result in adaptive behavior of the handicapped child producing increases in spontaneous speech, increased vocabulary and the potential to decrease inappropriate behaviors, given well-planned mainstream situations;

3. Mainstreaming may enhance the self-esteem of the handicapped child;

4. Mainstreaming should help the handicapped become more like other children; as such, the handicapped become more acceptable and less alien to other children.

While these benefits are supported by some writers (Bricker, 1978; Peterson et al. 1977), there are many detractors who raise equally valid concerns. For example, Smith and Arkans (1979) noted that the behavioral repertoire of severely retarded children may be so restricted as to limit their chance of profiting from exposure to more normalized behavior. However, it has been suggested that integrated programs provide a stimulating environment from which the handicapped child may learn new skills and competencies via observational learning (Guralnick, 1981). This observational learning has been the subject of considerable study under the label of modeling effects.

Modeling Effects. Karnes and Lee (1977) held that exposing mentally handicapped children to competent peer models in integrated settings is more beneficial than restricting them to segregated settings where their exposure is limited to other developmentally deficient peer models. However, this thesis presumes the handicapped children can and will model. Bandura (1977) stated that for modeling to occur the target child must attend to relevant stimuli, retain the information necessary to execute the modeled behavior, and have some incentive or motivation to perform the observed behavior.

Poorman (1980), Roos (1970), Wynne et al. (1975) and Wynne (1978) have suggested that placing mentally handicapped children in the regular classroom will effect the imitation of appropriate social and academic behaviors of normal peers by the handicapped child. Gresham (1981) however, noted that the assumption that mentally handicapped children will model appropriate behavior

of their non-handicapped peers is false. Modeling effects, he noted, do not occur automatically or by simple exposure.

Studies by Fechter (1971) and Talkington and Altman (1973) have demonstrated that symbolic (video or film mediated) modeling does not prove very effective with mentally handicapped children. However, despite the difficulties with symbolic modeling, children with various handicapping conditions have been shown to benefit from the influences of live models (Bandura, 1969; Csapo, 1972; and Mercer, et al. 1975). Unfortunately, simply placing mentally handicapped children with their non-handicapped peers implicitly assumes that they possess the motoric-reproduction processes necessary to execute the modeled behavior and have some incentive or motivation to perform the observed behavior.

Indeed, as noted earlier, Bandura's (1977) modeling research has suggested that systematic arrangements of antecedents and consequences for social behavior along with directed attention to and subsequent retention of patterns of behavior are necessary before modeling effects will occur. The Mercer et al. (1977) study found a positive correlation between modeling by mentally handicapped children and their ability to attend to social stimuli. As such, Bryan and Bryan (1979) noted that retarded children may require training in paying attention and in visually focusing on a model's actions. In addition, they noted that the impact of the model upon the child will be greatly affected by the reinforcement available for imitation. Cullinan et al. (1975) noted that because of the possible shortcomings in attention, memory and motor abilities many handicapped children may need repetitious, systematically presented models.

Based on these research findings, it would appear that modeling by handicapped children of their normal peers will not occur incidently. However, given structure and instruction, handicapped children can be taught to model. As such, opportunities for integration with normal peers can be beneficial if attempts at integration with normal peers affect the handicapped child and contain an educational structure. By this it is meant that a program plan should be devised, implemented and carried through. Furthermore, the integration plan should include planned opportunities for mixing. Otherwise, confining mentally handicapped children to a classroom within a school is no different from segregating them in their own special school.

Attitudinal Changes. A possible positive side effect of integration has been the notion that non-handicapped peers, parents and teachers will exhibit a decrease in negative feelings towards the handicapped (Brenton, 1974). Unfortunately, research data does not readily support this notion as an incidental occurrence.

Monroe and Howe (1971) and Johnson (1950) demonstrated that mentally handicapped children were not socially accepted by their peers even when they had spent time in the regular classroom. However, it should be noted that handicapped students were not overtly rejected in other studies (Lapp, 1957; Renz and Simenson, 1969). Furthermore, a degree of acceptance of those children with mental handicaps was noted by some investigators for children who were successfully integrated for part of their school day (Goodman et al., 1972; Gottlieb and Budoff, 1973; and Iano et at, 1974). Perhaps key elements in these studies include the manner in which integration took place, the pre-planning of peer interactions and the structuring of interactive activities. Little research was directed at these parameters.

Examination of the instruments used in a study by Stager and Young (1981) revealed that the nature of the questions asked non-handicapped peers may influence their views of acceptance of the handicapped. Questions went beyond social acceptability to address social preferences which had an academic base.

Use of peer-tutoring by mainstreamed non-handicapped students within a special education unit while working with mentally handicapped students resulted in an attitude of acceptance and understanding by the non-handicapped students. In addition, the special needs students developed more positive social skills (McCarthy and Stodelen, 1979). Project Special Friend (Poorman, 1980) utilized a similar approach and produced similar findings.

While research may be inconclusive regarding the belief that integration influences the attitudes of non-handicapped children more positively towards the handicapped, it is clear that with planning and careful structuring positive benefits can accrue. Unfortunately, most of the research has not addressed how the handicapped perceive such integration. It should also be noted that much of the research has addressed integration of the mentally handicapped and not children with other handicapping conditions. For example, Kennedy et al. (1976) found that hearing impaired children were as socially accepted as their classmates.

Research supporting the notion that improvement in sociometric status can occur when specific programs are designed to foster attitudinal change has been offered by several researchers (Ballard et al., 1977; Leyser and Gottlieb, 1980; Lilly 1971). In particular, the design of intervention strategies for integration seems essential as demonstrated by Reese-Dukes and Stokes (1978), in reducing the deviant and undesirable behavior of the handicapped. As well Voeltz (1980) found increasing tolerance of lower levels

of competence as perceived by the non-handicapped. Indeed, Simpson (1980) has devised a specific curricular content that can be used to foster a more accepting attitude of the handicapped. Thus, several parameters of integration seem to have been investigated sufficiently to provide generic policy statements for program development.

Models of Integration. Integration can be of two types. One involves the placement of exceptional children in the mainstream of activity. The second type involves taking mainstreaming activity to the segregated setting.

In addition, it has typically been advocated that the range of special educational services to students fits along a continuum. Furthermore, movement of a student along that continuum is possible with changes in each child's development. Various models known as cascade systems have evolved reflecting this continuum.

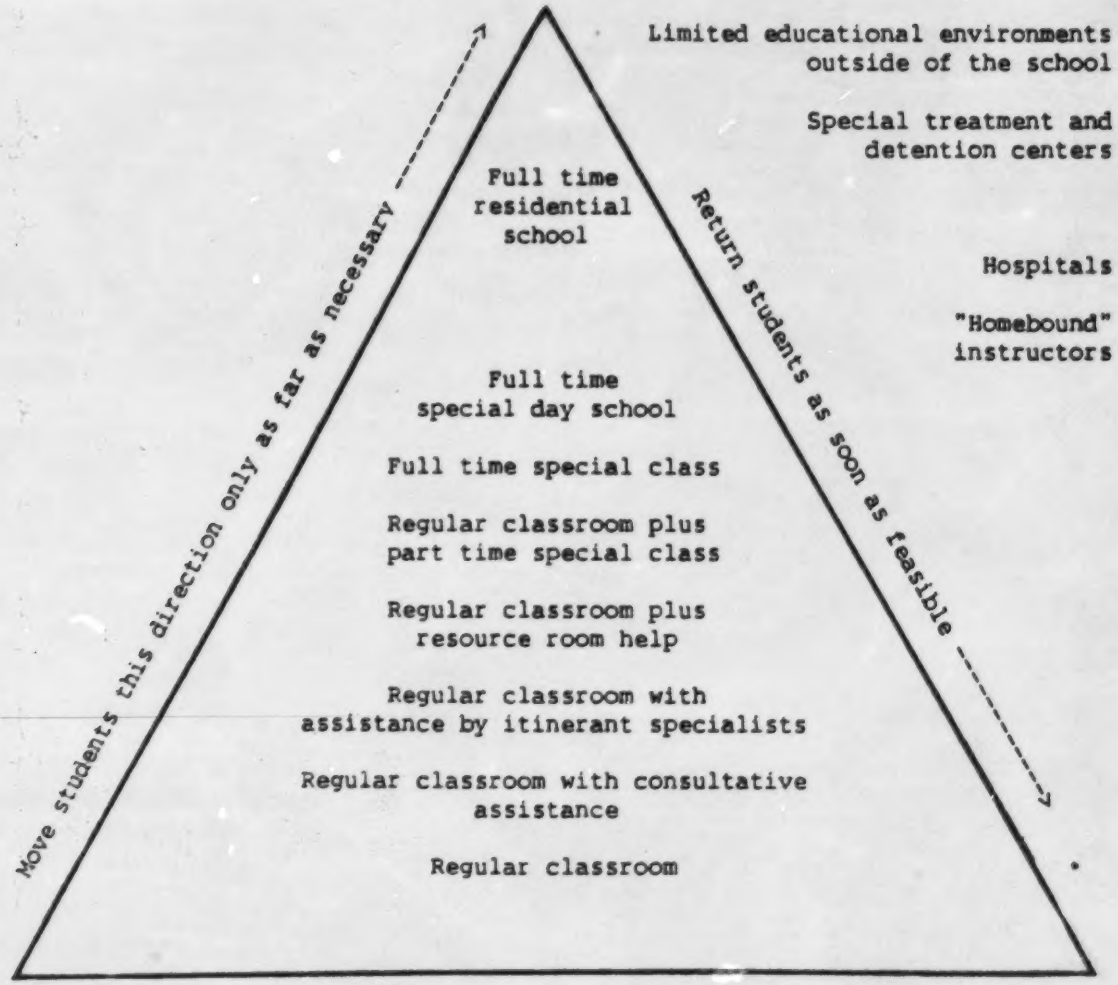
One such example was developed by Reynolds (1962) and is shown in Figure 1. The Reynolds' cascade model shows eight modes of service delivery to the exceptional child ranging from the regular classroom to a full-time residential school.

The premise was that one would move from the regular classroom to a segregated setting only as far as needed and for as short a time as necessary. While home instruction and institutional care were not considered in the Reynolds' model, a subsequent model developed by Ordell and Burrello (1982) added some instructional modes such as a telecommunication system to support homebound services for the severely retarded.

A model reflecting funding and management responsibilities as well as the educational and philosophical notions contained in the 1962 Reynolds' model was developed by Deno (1970) and is shown in Figure 2. The tapering reflects

FIGURE 1

The Reynolds Cascade Model


Limited educational environments outside of the school
Special treatment and detention centers
Hospitals
"Homebound" instructors
Full time residential school
Full time special day school
Full time special class
Regular classroom plus part time special class
Regular classroom plus resource room help
Regular classroom with assistance by itinerant specialists
Regular classroom with consultative assistance
Regular classroom
Move students this direction only as far as necessary
Return students as soon as feasible

Source: Reynolds, M. C., "A Framework for Considering Some Issues in Special Education." Exceptional Children, 1962, 28, 367-370.

the notion of fewer students requiring the upper level of services to a point where non-educational services are represented.

Because of criticisms aimed at these models concerning the "boxing" of students into modes of service delivery which may not always be appropriate, Reynolds, Maynard and Birch (1977) developed a revised model to Reynolds' (1962) earlier model which reflects a move towards greater diversity in regular classroom placements and the use of individualized programs.

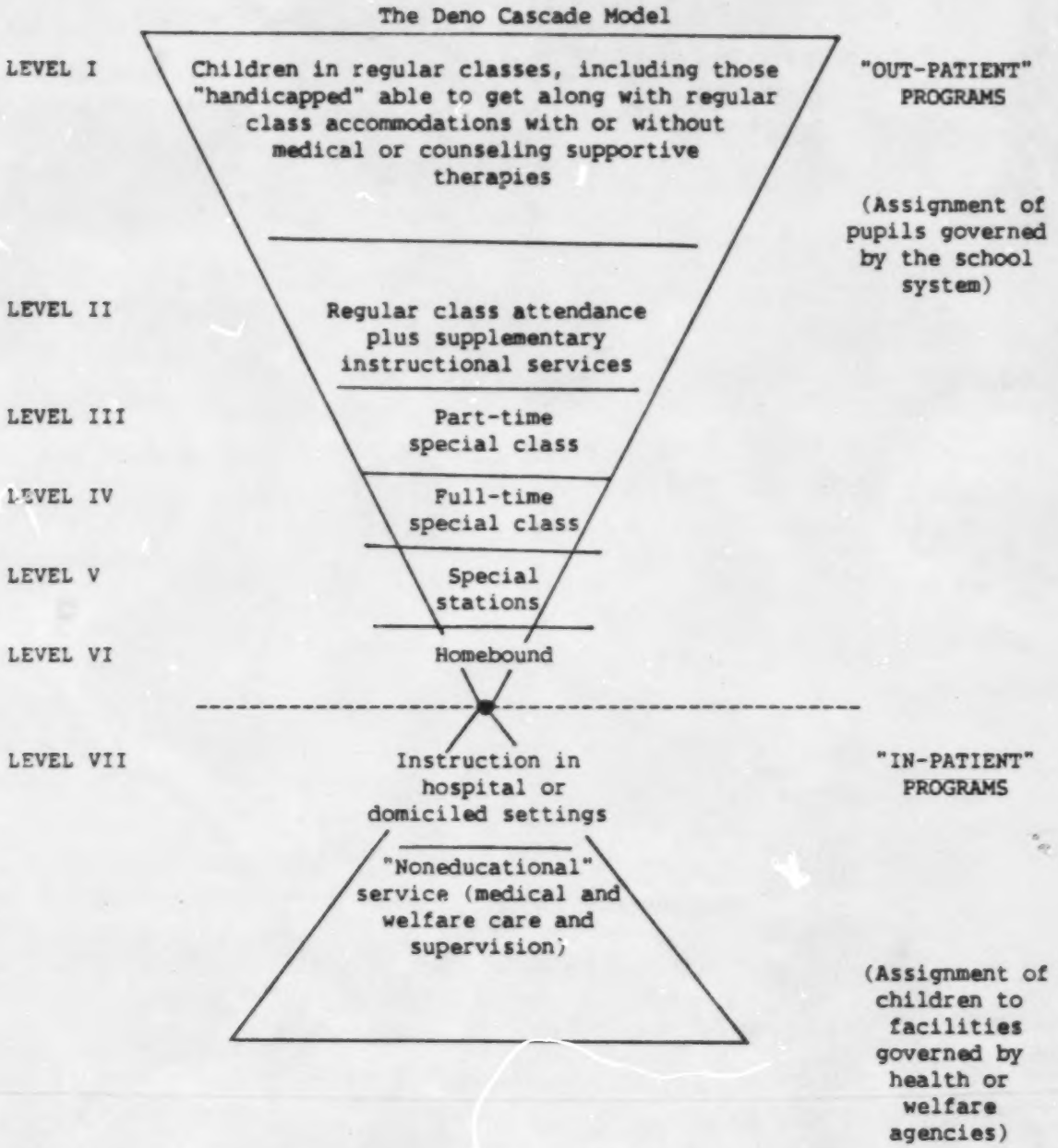
Service delivery in rural areas has been given special consideration because of several interfering factors for service delivery. According to Harris and Maher (1975) the following points were inhibiting rural service development and provision:

1. Lack of adequate support services;
2. The potential for greater administrative inertia;
3. The potential for role rigidity for support service staff;
4. The potential for interpersonal roadblocks between outside experts and internal established personnel;
5. The difficulty in attracting trained personnel;
6. Greater pupil transportation problems;
7. A lower tax base to build and finance quality programs.

The need for policy decisions and statements dealing with these issues would appear to be appropriate and necessary to school systems in providing special services to exceptional pupils.

Assessment Issues. No matter which system of service delivery is adopted for integration, at some point in time efforts will focus upon assessing the individual child and preparing a program plan. It is not our intention to

FIGURE 2


The Deno Cascade Model
LEVEL I
Children in regular classes, including those "handicapped" able to get along with regular class accommodations with or without medical or counseling supportive therapies
"OUT-PATIENT" PROGRAMS
(Assignment of pupils governed by the school system)
LEVEL II
Regular class attendance plus supplementary instructional services
LEVEL III
Part-time special class
LEVEL IV
Full-time special class
LEVEL V
Special stations
LEVEL VI
Homebound
LEVEL VII
Instruction in hospital or domiciled settings
"IN-PATIENT" PROGRAMS
"Noneducational" service (medical and welfare care and supervision)
(Assignment of children to facilities governed by health or welfare agencies)

Source: Deno, E., "Special Education as Developmental Capital," in Warfield (ed.), Exceptional Children, Council for Exceptional Children, Arlington, Va., 1970.

pursue a review of all the issues and subsequent court cases which have arisen as a result of assessment practices. However, a few examples will be used to illustrate the need for a clear policy which respects the rights of the individual. McCarthy (1978) noted that if assessment and classification practices are used to determine pupil access to educational resources, the courts can scrutinize them to determine their use and abuse under the Constitution of the United States. With Canada's new Constitution such a process will also be necessitated, given the provisions of Section 15 of the Canada Act.

Baker (1982) reviewed various court cases in the United States and found the following court decisions:

1. Assessment is discriminatory when children are not tested in their dominant language;
2. Some tests are culturally biased and cannot be used with persons of recent or strong ethnically different backgrounds;
3. Some tests are discriminatory in that a higher proportion of minority children are found in special placements;
4. Decisions to place children in low ability groups are based on too little information (IQ and achievement);
5. Tests are often administered by incompetent and poorly trained personnel;
6. Parental participation in decision-making about their children is not always adequate.

These findings have implications for policy development at the school and provincial levels particularly regarding the function of placement, the family involvement, who undertakes the testing, what instruments are used and the nature of the resulting program.

Program Planning--The IEP In an attempt to meet the legislative requirements as well as the intent of PL 94-142, educators in the United States focused increasing attention on the Individual Educational Plan (IEP) as a tool for ensuring that each child requiring a special program received such education as was appropriate to his or her needs. In addition, the IEP was intended to insure that the appropriately designed educational program was delivered and evaluated (Morgan, 1981).

None of the Canadian provinces have as yet mandated the use of IEPs. However it is important to note that because of the use of individualized educational programs in the United States some carry-over effects have been felt in Canada. Indeed, legislative mandates in six of the Canadian provinces requiring educators to meet the needs of the exceptional child have led to a focus upon ways and means to meet the individual program needs of all children. Thus, use of the IEP as a tool to accomplish this goal is receiving and will receive increasing attention in Canada.

The rationale for utilizing IEPs rests upon the desire that appropriate educational practices include a child-centered approach to teaching as well as ongoing evaluation of individualized programming. This approach is not new to Special Education and has been the focus of Special Education during the past decade. (Reger, Schroeder and Uschold, 1968; Hammill, 1971; Cartwright, Cartwright and Ysseldyke, 1973; Herrick, 1972; and Minskoff,1973). In addition, the use of IEPs may allow parents to be more meaningfully involved in the decision making process; also, pupils requiring alternative programming may not be denied normalizing contacts (Morgan, 1981).

Public Law 94-142 intended the IEP to serve as a product and as a process. This fact is evident from the various purposes and functions of an

IEP as summarized by Morgan (1981):

1. A written commitment of resources necessary to meet the needs of the exceptional child (Product);

2. A compliance/monitoring document to insure the child receives the appropriate education agreed to by the parents and the school (Product);

3. A communication vehicle between parents and school personnel to enable these equal participants to mutually decide on the child's needs, the appropriate program and anticipated outcomes (Process);

4. A focal point for resolving such differences as may exist between the parents and the school (Process);

5. A management tool to insure each child receives the special services and programs appropriate to his/her learning needs (Product/Process);

6. An evaluation device to determine the extent of the child's progress toward the meeting of the projected outcomes (Product/Process)

Morgan (1981) also suggested that the IEP be developed by a team composed of the representative (s) of the educational agency, the child's teacher(s), the child's parent(s) and, where appropriate, the child and other individuals.

Implementation of this process, consistent with current trends in Special Education, would seem to be a routine matter for Special Education teachers and administrators. Such is not the case. Frustration and confusion continue to result in many cases when the IEP is implemented. Gotts (1976) suggested that this is the case because widespread adoption of a diagnostic prescriptive system has never occurred at the classroom level. Thus, individualized educational programs tend to remain a concept rather than an empirically observable fact.

Many of the articles reviewed for this paper, examined the IEP without due regard to its two components, the product and process components. Kaye and Asserling (1979) have stated "The IEP is a product and as a process is in a state of becoming" (p.142). They went on to explain that the process is in a state of becoming because the individuals involved are not prepared to act as a team. Furthermore, they pointed out that the so-called team members are assumed to have the requisite skills to create the product. However, all members do not have these skills nor are there training programs to deliver these skills. Barriers such as the traditional concept of planning in isolation and one shot decisions intended to stand for all time continue to exist. Thus, the team member process suffers, the program plan suffers, and in turn so does the child.

As previously noted the IEP can be much more than a product. It can serve as the catalyst to produce effective communication between those individuals concerned with the appropriate education of the child, the administrator, parent, teacher, specialist, and indeed, the child. Such a process will not readily occur without policy and procedural statements supported by appropriate training models. For example, Safer, Morrissey, Kaufman and Lewis (1978) found that the component steps of the IEP process were not viewed as elements of instructional planning by many of the teachers in their study. Indeed, Hayes and Higgens (1978) found that teachers sometimes fear the IEP because they perceive it as an accountability measure to be used against them should the student fail to attain the specified objectives. This anxiety occurs despite the stated intent of PL 94-142 that an <u>IEP does not guarantee student progress.</u> Indeed, Hayes and Higgens went on to state that Special Education teachers can utilize the IEP to assist them in

their advocacy role for specified programs and services.

Most systems stress the involvement of parents in the decision making process. However, the parent is seen as a legitimator of an educational decision to place a child in a special class or program. Few if any school systems stress the importance of parent and child involvement prior to decision making (Yoshida and Gottlieb, 1977). Even when involved prior to making a decision Yoshida et al. (1978) found that the parental role may be limited to presenting information reviewing progress and reviewing appropriateness of the student's program.

Parents do not appear to be expected to actively participate in making decisions about their child's program. Thus, it is not surprising that in a recent study of 168 parents of school-age handicapped children living in Oregon, a low percentage of overall IEP conference attendance by parents was found (Scanlon, Arick, and Phelps, 1981). It was surprising, however that this still exists when over a quarter of a century ago Cruickshank (1951) wrote that the parents of handicapped children need help in attempting to meet the needs of their children. Such help could be in the form of honest understanding and guidance. Based on this concept, Turnbull, Stickland and Goldstein (1978) outlined a training program for professionals and parents in developing and implementing the IEP. The model included sessions on small group problem solving and role playing.

Despite these attempts Goldstein, Strickland, Turnbull and Curry (1980) have found that the resource teacher dominates the process and reviews an already completed IEP for parents. They concluded that parent training regarding not only the process, but also their responsibilities, was in order. Unfortunately, simply training parents is not enough. They have to be

involved before the school completes the IEP. Thus, staff training also seems to be a requisite step.

It seems logical to conclude that the focus for policy decisions regarding the implementation of an IEP process rests with the local educational authority or school board and central office staff. At a minimum, members of the IEP team should include representatives of the district, the home and the school. The principal as possible team leader within the school must insure that the school does not become the weak link in the process (Dougherty, 1979).

Given the earlier comments on the possible lack of requisite skills by team members it seems logical to conclude that someone or some group should assume responsibility for a training component. One of the important components in this process that has been identified is the communication which takes place in the IEP process (Safer, Morrissey, Kaufman and Lewis, 1977). Maher (1980a) examined three types of training procedures related to the communication component. The three procedures were inservice training, inservice training plus performance feedback and performance feedback without inservice training. As one would expect it was found that inservice training increased the number of completed IEPs but that performance feedback was necessary to maintain the higher ratio. Performance feedback in and of itself did not increase the number of completed IEPs. In addition, teachers rated completed IEPs as more useful to them than incomplete IEPs.

While the IEP has its shroud of problems it does, as noted by Turnbull, Strickland and Hammer (1979), have the "... potential of being the catalyst for a more individualized and specified approach to education, increased accountability of educators, and shared decision-making between teachers and

parents" (p.58). They went on to state that the challenge is to insure that the IEP does in reality become an individualized educational program and not some other misnomer such as increased educational paperwork.

Teacher Competency. Given the process nature of the IEP and the need for participation by the parent, concerned teachers, school administrator, various consultants and, in some cases, the child, it would appear that if teacher involvement is to be meaningfully productive, particularly since it will be the teacher who has to directly implement and operate the program, the teachers should have at their disposal the highest possible training competencies.

This training can be accomplished through various modes, including university preparation before entering the field, continuing university education and inservice training of existing teachers at the district level.

Connor (1976) has identified a trend toward competency based teacher education (CBTE). Competency based teacher education has been defined by Semmel and Semmel (1976) as teacher education programs which specify in detail the performance goals for trainees in advance of instruction. However, Blatt (1976) has noted that controversy has surrounded the use of CBTE because it has not, as was expected, made a science of teacher education.

Lilly (1979) has addressed some current issues in the preparation of personnel in Special Education. Among these issues are the control of teacher education by the consumer as proposed by the Council of Exceptional Children. In Canada, teacher certification falls under provincial authority and generally reflects a cooperative effort between certification and the course work at university. Newfoundland's Department of Education does not provide specialist certificates. It does question granting funding for new Special

Education classes if all reasonable attempts to find appropriately trained personnel are not made by the district concerned. As such it encourages the employment of appropriately trained teachers. In Alberta, the Department of Education has no such policy and sees a teacher as a teacher, regardless of preparation. Within this context, however, it should be noted that many Alberta school jurisdictions do seek out appropriately trained personnel.

Lilly (1979) identified another issue in the training of special education teachers, namely that the training of skills should be moving toward greater integration as opposed to greater specialization reducing the specialized categories to a broad category of special education. Another rapidly expanding concept noted by Lilly (1979) is the notion that regular educators should undertake one or more courses in Special Education. In fact, some states are now requiring regular educators to fulfill this obligation.

Within the framework of advances in the training of special teachers, one area of concern relative to personnel administration would include inservice education. Such inservice models as exemplified in the Maine (1982) project can take the form of one-shot activities of the workshop or meeting type. At another level a system may have long range all-encompassing structures including several programs and activities. Beyond these levels some districts go so far as to offer or provide for short courses. The key to success would appear to be the duration of planning with a focus on the need for long-term planning and follow up. However, these considerations all suggest the need for provincial and district policies regarding teacher competencies and the attainment of these competencies.

Program Evaluation. No matter what the province or individual school district undertakes with regard to any policy or procedure, it will not know

how successful it has been without some type of evaluation system. Such evaluations should be a priori and not post hoc. However, it has to be accepted that the post hoc type has been addressed in most school districts.

Maher (1980a) examined two models for evaluating organizational effectiveness--the Systems Model and the Goals Model. He found them to be complementary with respect to purpose in that each model focused on different aspects of special services delivery. As its name implies the Goals Model examines information about whether a Special Educational service has attained its goals, while the Systems Model gathers information about the effectiveness of service delivery processes. One example of a systems model is the Organizational Domain References Approach proposed by Maher (1980b). This approach examaines four sub-systems: System Structure, Needs Assessment, Program Design and Program Evaluation, and utilizes self-administered survey questionnaires.

It is unfortunate that no generally accepted conceptualizations of organizational effectiveness which can prescribe guidelines for evaluating Special Education services were uncovered. Indeed, Maher (1980b) has noted the same concern.

As White (1969) stated, the day has passed when consumers will accept innovations because they are current. Goal statements, systematic measurement of progress towards the attainement of those goals, public reporting of such progress and the reconsideration of goals and strategies based on the data are now the order of the day for educators. Provincial and district policies on these issues would stimulate boards to commence and maintain evaluation activities more systematically.

As such, evaluation has become a crucial factor in the operation of school programs. Mollenkopf (1982) has stated that evaluation should involve a process of making observations, obtaining information, applying the information to some criteria, and on the basis of such comparisons, forming a judgment and drawing a conclusion. Evaluation can be of three types: formative, summative and discrepancy. It can serve any number of purposes, some of which include the determination of program effectiveness in helping make decisions on budgeting, in serving as a basis for public relations and in assisting in the development of a more systematic approach in future undertakings.

Formative or process evaluation involves monitoring the implementation of program strategies to determine their success and provide for continuous feedback. Summative or product evaluation involves the assessment of the consequence of the implemented strategies. Such evaluative steps provide information regarding the solution of problems, the extent of such solutions, which problems still need solving and which problems have arisen (Mollenkopf,1982). Scriven (1967) originally coined the terms to distinguish between evaluations designed primarily to identify strengths and weaknesses for improvement (formative) and those designed to pass judgment (summative). Sheppard (1982) has made an interesting point in suggesting that formative evaluators are more likely to assume a project's continuance, whereas summative evaluations are more likely to question the continued existence of a program.

Discrepancy evaluation has been described by Mollenkopf (1982) as a model which focuses upon program, not staff or students. It is based on the premise that evaluation is constructive. As such it compares what is with what should

be. If a difference or discrepancy is found between the two, it is evaluated as positive or negative and the appropriate course of action suggested. In the event of a negative discrepancy either the standard, the program or both are altered. Whatever the model adopted, Mollenkopf (1982) noted that information should be continually related back to the program.

Summary. Each of the content areas reviewed provided background information for the development of enabling policies which would be functionally useful to school boards providing Special Education services. Certainly, operational definitions and children's rights policies should exist as a fundamental basis or raison d'etre for Special Education programs.

Because of the increasing integration of special-needs children within typical educational programs, policies in this area are essential. The involvement of multidisciplinary or transdisciplinary teams in assessment, IEP development, and service delivery necessitates policy guidelines for each of the domains of functioning. The literature amply demonstrates a substantive conceptual basis and, in some cases, empirical basis for policy development. Hence, it seems that we are at an ideal point in time to develop a policy which supports and maintains service developments to date.

APPENDIX B

SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION POLICIES[4]

NEWFOUNDLAND SEAP SURVEY[5]

The Newfoundland Special Education Administrative Policies (Newfoundland SEAP) survey was prepared for school district administrators (superintendent and/or special education coordinators) to identify the needs associated with developing special education administrative policies in Newfoundland.

Policies are herein defined as "any administrative decision (including district circulars and memos), board action, rule or regulation or law that is recorded and available in writing bearing directly or indirectly on the education of exceptional children." Special education is understood as the delivery of educational services, other than regular education, to all types of exceptional children, including the gifted.

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[4] Basic methodology and some questionnaire items were adapted from the SEAP Project, directed by Dr. Scottie Torres-Higgins and housed by the Government Relations Unit of the Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia, and from work directed by Dr. L. J. Goguen and Dr. P. Leslie and described in a paper A Descriptive Study of Special Education Administrative Policies (SEAP) in two Canadian Provinces: British Columbia and New Brunswick presented to the Council for Exceptional Children, 59th Annual International Convention, New York, 1981.

[5] The same questionnaire was employed in Alberta with proper-noun alterations and substitutions appropriate to this province.

The research team assures respondents that in reporting data, the school districts will not be identified.

For further information contact:

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Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2G5

OR

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Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2G5

OR CALL:

Dr. M. Steer, Director, Division of Special Services
Department of Education
Confederation Building
St. John's, Newfoundland
Telephone 737-3023

Special Education Administration Policies

1. General Information:
   1.1 District, Name and # _____
   1.2 Respondent's name _____
   1.3 Respondent's position _____

2. Please check areas for which your school district has written policy statements and attach a copy of those statements.

_____ 2.1 Rights of exceptional children to education.
_____ 2.2 Operational definitions for exceptional children.
_____ 2.3 Screening process (identification) for exceptional children
_____ 2.4 Referral process of identified exceptional children.
_____ 2.5 Assessment of identified exceptional children
_____ 2.6 Reporting to parents about the assessment process and results of evaluations of their exceptional children
_____ 2.7 Parents' access to student's records
_____ 2.8 Placement of exceptional children (e.g., least restrictive environment)
_____ 2.9 Individualized educational programs for exceptional children
_____2.10 Program evaluation in special education
_____2.11 Due process (procedures for parent's input in decision-making process)
_____2.12 Graduation requirements for exceptional children (e.g., certificate of attendance, regular diploma)
_____2.13 Professional development of personnel involved with exceptional children
_____2.14 Special training required of teachers involved with exceptional children
_____2.15 Responsibilities of special education personnel (e.g., job description)
_____2.16 Physical facilities for exceptional children (e.g., accessibility to school buildings)
_____2.17 Transportation for exceptional children
_____2.18 Administrative governance (e.g., contracted services, appointments)
_____2.19 Fiscal management of funds for services to exceptional children (e.g., allocation, recording, accountability)
_____2.20 Interagency cooperation (e.g., Indian Affairs, Health and Social Services) or Intragency cooperation (e.g., Dept. regular education, physical education)
_____2.21 Policy development and review
_____2.22 Other, specify

3. Having completed the identification of existing written policy statements related to exceptional children's educational services, this part seeks your opinion on your needs for policy development in the same areas listed in question #2. On the left side of the listing, please score No need, if you do not feel a need for policy development or revision in this area; score District, if you feel it should be developed by the District only; score Department, if you feel it should be developed by the Department only: score joint, if you feel the policies in this area should be developed by both the Department and the District. On the right hand side, please score the level of urgency of the policy development's area for which you scored District, Department, or Joint.

Please check No Need	Dist.	Dept.	Joint	Policy area	Please circle Level of Urgency Low.....High
3- 1 ____	____	____	____	Rights of exceptional child.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 2 ____	____	____	____	Operational Definitions	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 3 ____	____	____	____	Screening process	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 4 ____	____	____	____.	Referral process	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 5 ____	____	____	____	Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 6 ____	____	____	____	Reporting to parents	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 7 ____	____	____	____	Parent's access to student's record	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 8 ____	____	____	____	Placement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3- 9 ____	____	____	____	Individualized education program	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-10 ____	____	____	____	Program evaluation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-11 ____	____	____	____	Due Process	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-12 ____	____	____	____	Graduation requirements	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-13 ____	____	____	____	Professional development	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-14 ____	____	____	____	Certification of teachers	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-15 ____	____	____	____	Responsibilities of special education personnel	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-16 ____	____	____	____	Physical facilities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-17 ____	____	____	____	Transportation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-18 ____	____	____	____	Administrative governance	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-19 ____	____	____	____	Fiscal management	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-20 ____	____	____	____	Inter and Intra agency cooperation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3-21 ____	____	____	____	Policy development and review	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. Please check the special program (s) your District offers students.

_____4- 1 Primary Classes for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 2 Elementary Classes for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 3 Junior High Classes for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 4 Senior High Classes for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 5 Work-Study Classes for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 6 Classes for the Trainable Mentally Retarded
_____4- 7 Classes (Programs) for the Emotionally Disturbed
(check one) Class ____ Program ____
_____4- 8 Classes (Programs) for the Gifted
(check one) Class ____ Program ____
_____4- 9 Classes (Programs) for the Learning Disabled
(Check one) Class ____ Program ____
_____4-10 Resource/Remedial Room Approach for Educable Mentally Retarded
_____4-11 Classes (Programs) for the Hearing Impaired
(check one) Classes ____ Programs ____
_____4-12 Classes (Programs) for the Visual Impaired
(check one) Classes ____ Programs ____
_____4-13 Classes for the Multiple dependent handicapped
_____4-14 School Consultative Personnel or Teams (such as Ed. Psyc., Guidance Counsellors, Reading, Speech and Special Education Specialist) to assist in Psychoeducational diagnosis and Programming for special students
(Check one) (Team ____ Individual ____)
_____4-15 Special Transportation Facilities
_____4-16 Other (Please Specify) _____

5 Please specify where applicable your District's policy on:

5- 1 Integration of special pupils _____

5- 2 Mainstreaming _____

5- 3 Normalization _____

5- 4 Admission of profoundly retarded _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION IN THIS PROJECT.

REMINDER:

For purpose of reporting results of this survey to participants, please forward copies of written policy statements identified in question #2. Once again, thank you for your participation.

Please return questionnaire and district policy statement in the enclosed envelope to:

Dr. M. Steer
Director, Division of Special Services
Department of Education
Confederation Building
St. John's, Newfoundland

who will forward same to Dr. Kysela and Fred French for confidential analysis.

When returning your questionnaire, please write the name of the School Board on the top left hand corner of the envelope.